Algorand Blockchain Introduction to blockchain and smart contract design Part I: The Algorand Consensus

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An overview

Objective

Design and implementation of a *Distributed Autonomous Organization* (DAO) on the blockchain.

Our DAO

- it holds a certain number of tokens FOSAD22Token
- anyone can buy the tokens at the current price
- governors can set the price
- governors can sell their right
- when all tokens are sold, DAO dissolves and shares the proceeds among its founders

Distributed: once setup, it runs on the distributed blockchain Autonomous: no human supervision is needed once it is started

4D > 4A > 4B > 4B > B 990

Centralized

One program running on one machine on the Internet

Trust assumption: One program is trusted

Decentralized

One program run by the whole network

Trust assumption: Two thirds of the network are trusted

How we leverage on widespread trustfulness

Algorand Consensus: the executive summary



Pure Proof of Stake (PPoS) Byzantine Agreement

- can tolerate malicious users
- no need for a central authority, as long as a super-majority of the stake is in non-malicious hands.
- extremely fast (currently, one new block every \approx 4 sec)
- fork with probability $< 10^{-18}$
- immediate finality
- no delegation or binding of the stake
- requires minimal computational power per node
- carbon neutral

► Source: https://developer.algorand.org/docs/get-details/algorand_consensus/

Digital currency

Double spending

Each digital coin can only be spent once.

- transaction based: transactions take coins as input and output coins need to keep track of which coins have not been spent yet coins input to a transaction are burned
 - Bitcoin keeps a list of unspent transaction outputs UTXO
- account based: transactions move coins from one account to another need to keep track of number of coins associated with each account

the concept of a *transaction* is basic in both models

Current implementations

- Physical coins and bills:
 - each individual is an account.
 - an individual owns the coins in his pocket/wallet
 - a transaction moves money from one pocket to another
- Bank accounts:
 - a transaction moves money from one account to another
 - the bank keeps track of the balance in each account
 - private, centralized and offline ledger

We want public, decentralized, on-line ledgers

Consensus on who owns money

- Physical coins and bills:
 - ► Consensus is trivial: we all agree that what's in my pocket is mine
- Bank accounts:
 - Because the BANK says so

Consensus on transactions

• A blockchain is a *public* ledger organized as a sequence of *blocks*

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Puzzles

- Efficiency: the cost of solving a puzzle or realizing that we cannot solve the puzzle
 - ▶ green vs non-green blockchains
- Multiple Solvers: the puzzle can be solved concurrently by more than one node or each puzzle can only be solved by one node.
 - block finality
- The block proposed by the selected node must be verified by the other nodes

Distributed vs Centralized

- Centralized consensus is easy
 - ▶ Banks have been successfully operating for centuries

- Decentralized consensus is hard
 - No trusted party
 - Only trust that a (super-)majority is honest
 - Majority of what??? Sybil attack
 - Bitcoin: computing power
 - Algorand: tokens
 - ▶ Cannot be faked and does not need identity management

Bitcoin vs Algorand

Bitcoin's Puzzle

Proof of Work:

- hard-to-invert hash function
- probability of selection proportional to computing power
- the same puzzle might be solved by two (or more) nodes

Algorand's Puzzle

Proof of Stake:

- ullet each token (algo) throws a die with prob 1/N of winning
- winning token can be shown
- probability of winning proportional to number of tokens held
- ullet probability of two algos throwing the winning die is about 10^{-18}

Proof of Work

Dwork and Naor, 1992 Hashcash by Adam Back, 1997

Combatting junk mail

- easy to compute hash function $H: \{0,1\}^{\star} \to \{0,1\}^{\ell}$
- infeasible to find a *collision*: $x \neq y$ such that

$$H(x) = H(y)$$

and infeasible to invert

• add a nonce to an email message such that

starts with k zeros

 receiver looks for nonce in the message and if not found or incorrect, email is deemed junk

Rationale

- Sender must spend some time before sending out a message
- Receiver must spend (much less) time verifying a message
- Overhead acceptable for the regular email user
- Unfeasible if sending out thousands of email

Cryptographic Hash Functions

- Takes a string x of any length and returns a fixed length output H(x)
- Easy to compute (hundreds of megabytes per second)
- Infeasible to find a collision

$$H(x) = H(y)$$

this implies that H is infeasible to invert

• For a given x, only way to find nonce such that

$$H(\text{nonce}||x)$$

starts with k zeros is to try different values for nonce until one is found. Number of average tries is exponential in k.

Concrete examples: RipeMD, SHA256, Keccak (aka SHA3)

Proof of Work in Bitcoin

- Starting from
 - Hash of previous block
 - Hash of Transactions of Current Block
 - Timestamp

Find nonce such that the hash value is smaller than target.

• Every 2016 blocks (about 2 weeks), the target is recomputed by setting NewTarget to

OldTarget * MinToProduceLast2016Blocks/20160Min to keep average time between blocks to around 10 minutes

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Economic Incentives

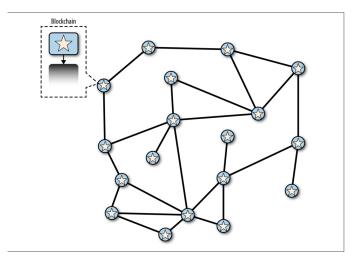
A native currency is associated with the Bitcoin blockchain to reward nodes that produce (mine) new blocks

- miner receives the transaction fees associated to each transaction in the block
- a certain number of freshly mint bitcoins
 - initially 50 bitcoins per block
 - halving every 210_000 blocks
 - currently 6.25 bitcoins
 - coinbase transaction, only type of Bitcoin transaction with no input

Extending the blockchain

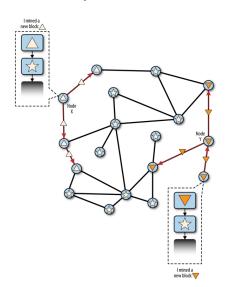
- At any given time, each node has its own view of the blockchain
- Need not to be one chain
- More chains are possible
- Where to attach the next block?
 - Nakamoto consensus: longest chain available

Suppose all nodes have the same view of the block chain

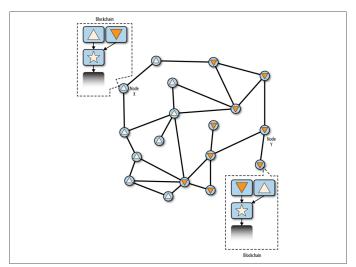


Pictures from *Mastering Bitcoin* by Andreas M. Antonopoulos.

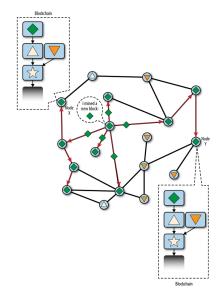
Two blocks found simultaneously



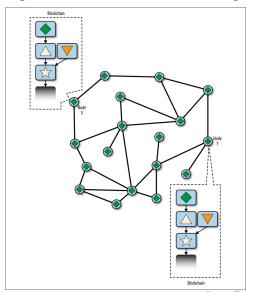
Two different views of the blockchain coexist



A new block extends one of fork



The network converges to one fork and the other is forgotten



Finality

- the transactions in the upside-triangle block disappear from the blockchain and must be resubmitted (unless they are also in the triangle block)
- theoretically the fork can extend to two blocks, if two blocks are found almost simultaneously by nodes on opposite side of the fork
- One-block forks occur about every day
- Two-block forks occur about every few weeks
- It is safe to wait 3 blocks before considering a transaction final
 - transaction finalization is about 30 min

The Algorand Consensus

Byzantine Agreement

Pease, Shostak and Lamport, 1980

A protocol to reach agreement

Works if at least 2/3 of the players are honest

- Honey Badger, Miller et al., CCS 2016
 - ► A designated set of servers reaches consensus through BA
 - A single point of attack
- Bitcoin-NG, Eyal et al., NSDI 2016
 - Use Nakamoto consensus to elect a leader
 - Leader publishes transactions
- ByzCoin, Kokoris-Kogias, Usenix Security Symposium, 2016
 - Use Nakamoto consensus to elect a group of participants
- Stellar, D. Mazieres, 2016
 - Each user trusts a subset of other users
 - Consistent agreement is reached if the transitive closure of the trust relations covers quorum of the nodes

BA*

Cryptographic primitives

- Digital Signatures
 - used to sign messages
- Verifiable Random Functions
 - used to select users

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$$sig = Sign(m, sigk)$$

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 given m and sig anybody can check that sig is a signature of m w.r.t. to sigk by executing

Verify(vk, sig, m)

Digital Signatures in Algorand

- an address/user is a verification key
- a user owns an address, if they know the associated signing key
- each Algorand address is associated with a certain number of Algo tokens: the balance
- if a user proposes a transaction, i.e. to transfer/spend some tokens, the transaction is signed with the signing key associated with the address
- everybody can verify that a transaction is properly signed

signing key aka the spending key

Algorand uses Ed25519: EdDSA with SHA-512 and Curve 25519.



Verifiable Random Functions

[Micali, Rabin, and Vadhan, 1999]

- A Cryptographic Primitive:
 - ► a public key pk
 - ▶ a secret key sk
- Given value x and (pk, sk)
 - ▶ it is possible to compute y = F(sk, x) and a proof Π that y is the correct value
 - for all $x \neq x'$, y = F(sk, x') is still *random* even conditioned on pk, (x, y)
- Given (x, y, Π) and a public key pk
 - ▶ it is possible to verify that *y* is the correct value

▶ VRF used by Algorand ⇒ https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/html/draft-irtf-cfrg-vrf-10

The Algorand Consensus

Rationale

- Addresses (i.e., verification keys) are the players
- Each player has a weight proportional to its stake (number of Algo tokens associated with the address)
 - Creating dummy addresses is useless
- Digital Signatures
 - used to sign messages exchanged during the consensus protocol
- Verifiable Random Functions
 - used to select players with probability proportional to its stake

Cryptographic Sortition and Participant Replacement

Cryptographic Sortition

- ► Each party evaluates the VRF on some public information of the blockchain to check if selected for a committee
 - if not selected, no action
 - ★ if selected, announce and every one can verify correctness
- Participant Replacement
 - once selected, a participant sends one message
 - no time for an adversary to attack a committee member

Cryptographic Sortition

- \bullet τ (expected) number of users to be chosen
- user i with (pk_i, sk_i) is selected with probability proportionally to the weight w_i
 - ▶ more than one sub-user $(i, 1), \ldots, (i, w_i)$ can be chosen
- for role role

Algorithm for Cryptographic Sortition

let s be the seed and W total weight

- set $(h,\Pi) = F(sk_i, s||role)$ and $p = \tau/W$
- return (h, Π, j) such that $h/2^{\ell}$ falls in interval

$$\left[\sum_{k=0}^{j-1} B(k; w_j, p), \quad \sum_{k=0}^{j} B(k; w_j, p)\right]$$

where $B(k; w, p) = {w \choose k} p^k (1-p)^{w-k}$ is the probability that k out of w_i are selected.

Sybil attacks

Splitting the weight w of a user into $w = w_1 + w_2$ of two dummy users does not help

$$B(k_1; w_1, p) + B(k_2; w_2, p) = B(k_1 + k_2; w_1 + w_2, p)$$



Selecting the seed

• at round r-1, every block proposer u adds also the proposed seed s_r for round r computed as

$$(s,\Pi) = F(\mathtt{sk}_u, s_{r-1-(r \bmod R)}||r)$$

- s₀ chosen at start
- key sk_u must be chosen in advance
 - weak synchrony assumption

Participation Keys

- To take part in consensus, a user must be online
- This means that some secret key of the user should be given to a node
- Users should not use the spending key for consensus.
 If the node is compromised, the user could lose the Algo tokens
- Instead...

Participation Keys

- a user generates and registers a participation key for a certain number of rounds
- it also generates a collection of *ephemeral* keys, one for each round, signs these keys with the participation key, and then deletes the participation key.
- each ephemeral key is used to sign consensus messages for the corresponding round, and is deleted after the round is over.
 - Using participation keys ensures that a user's algos are secure even if their participating node is compromised.
 - Deleting the participation and ephemeral keys after they are used ensures that the blockchain is forward-secure and cannot be compromised by attacks on old blocks using old keys.

Consensus

- Block Proposal
- Soft Vote
- Certify Vote.

All messages in each phase are signed with one of the ephemeral keys of the round.

I - Block proposal

- A user runs with cryptographic sortition with $\tau = 26$.
 - ightharpoonup with probability $1-10^{-11}$ we have at least one proposer and at most 70 proposers
- Each user propagates block k from $1, \ldots, j$ with highest priority

along with proof and proposed block

I - Block Proposal

- Each node get proposals from other nodes
- Verify the signature of the block and the cryptographic sortition
- Do not propagate blocks with lower priority than already seen
- This is done for a fixed amount of time
 - tradeoff between efficiency and probability of not receiving any proposed block

II - Soft Vote

- Each node runs cryptographic sortition with role=''committee||round||step'' to see if chosen for the soft vote committee
- All chosen accounts will have a weighted vote based on the number of algos the account has
- These votes will be for the highest priority block proposed and will be sent out to the other nodes signed and along with the sortition proof
- If within timeout no quorum is formed
 - ► A new committee is formed until a quorum is reached
 - for a maximum number of steps

References

- Y. Gilad et al., Algorand: Scaling Byzantine Agreement for Cryptocurrencies, SOSP '17
- J. Chen, S. Micali, Algorand: A secure and efficient distributed ledger, TCS, 2019
- Algorand Blockchain Feature Specification, 2019
- Algorand Source Code at github/algorand/go-algorand

PoW Consensus vs PoS Consensus

PoW vs PoS

- Computational Power
 - PoW: very expensive (inverting hash function by brute force)
 - PoW: need to be compensated
 - PoS: inexpensive (can run on Raspeberry pi)
 - PoS: no need to be compensated
 - PoS: more tokens, more likely to be selected, more work
 - PoS: more tokens, greater interest in the network, more willing to be involved
- Robustness to attacks
 - PoW and PoS rely on majority of good players
 - Gain majority to disrupt the networks
 - PoW: Buy hardware
 - PoS: Buy tokens
 - if you own more than half of the PoS economy why would you want to disrupt it?